

Title

Charcoal identification in species-rich biomes: a protocol for Central Africa optimised for the Mayumbe forest

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Abstract

Direct evidence for Central African vegetation history is mostly derived from palynology and palaeolimnology. Although anthracology has proven worthwhile for palaeovegetation reconstructions in temperate regions and South America, charcoal analysis has hardly been applied for Central Africa. Moreover, a transparent charcoal identification procedure using large databases and well defined characters has never been developed. Therefore, we present a Central African charcoal identification protocol within an umbrella database of species names and metadata, compiled from an on-line database of wood-anatomical descriptions (InsideWood), the database of the world's largest reference collection of Central African wood specimens (RMCA, Tervuren, Belgium) and inventory and indicator species lists. The 2909 Central African woody species covered by this database represent a large fraction of the total woody species richness of Central Africa. The database enables a directed search taking into account metadata on (1) anatomical features, (2) availability of thin sections within the reference collection, (3) species distribution and (4) synonymy. The protocol starts with an anatomical query within this database, focussing on genus rather than species level, proceeds with automatic extension and reduction phases of the resulting species list and ends with a comparative microscopic study of wood reference thin sections and charcoal anatomy. In total, 76.2% of the Central African species in the database are taken into consideration, focussing on indicator and inventory species. The protocol has a large geographical applicability, as it can be optimised for every research area within Central Africa. Specifically, the protocol has been optimised for the Mayumbe region and applied to radiocarbon dated (2055-2205 ^{14}C yr BP) charcoal collections from a pedoanthracological excavation. The validity of the protocol has been proven by the mutual consistency of charcoal identification results and the consistency of these identification results with vegetation history based on phytogeographical and palynological research within and around the Mayumbe. As such, anthracology complements palynology and a combination of both can lead to stronger palaeobotanical reconstructions.

Keywords

pedoanthracology; wood anatomy; charcoal analysis; Central Africa; vegetation history;
palaeoenvironment

Abbreviations

SEM: Scanning Electron Microscopy
RLM: Reflected Light Microscopy
TLM: Transmitted Light Microscopy
RMCA: Royal Museum for Central Africa (Tervuren, Belgium)
UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation
IAWA: International Association of Wood Anatomists
FAO: Food and Agricultural Organisation of the United Nations
Tw(followed by a number): Tervuren wood specimen label
Tv: transversal direction (in wood)
Tg: tangential direction (in wood)
R: radial direction (in wood)

1 Introduction

African vegetation history is not yet fully understood. Indirect evidence is mostly based on phytogeographic and palaeolimnological research (Sosef, 1996; Verschuren et al., 2000; Leal, 2004; Russell et al., 2009; Tchouto et al., 2009). Direct evidence is mostly based on palynological research (Maley, 1996, 2004; Ngomanda et al., 2009; Hessler et al., 2010) while charcoal analysis has only sporadically been applied (Dechamps et al., 1988; Schwartz et al., 1990; Hart et al., 1996). Yet, soil macrocharcoal analysis (pedoanthracology) is spatially more precise than palynology because pollen are easily transported by wind over a long distance (Clark, 1988; Scott & Glasspool, 2007; Di Pasquale et al., 2008). Moreover, pollen types are rarely identifiable down to species level, which complicates interpretation of the results. Finally, species can be underrepresented (entomophilous taxa) or overrepresented (anemophilous taxa) in pollen diagrams (Elenga et al., 2000; Lebamba et al., 2009).

Charcoal is a chemically nearly inert material and extremely slowly affected by chemical weathering, thus remaining in soil profiles for a long period (Cope & Chaloner, 1980; Skjemstad et al., 1996; Forbes et al., 2006; Scott & Glasspool, 2007). Charcoal is especially valuable for palaeobotany and archaeology due to preservation of the anatomical structure during the charcoalification process. Thereby, it is feasible to identify charcoal using the same anatomical features as wood (Figueiral & Mosbrugger, 2000; Scheel-Ybert, 2000; Di Pasquale et al., 2008). Yet, absolute measurements have to be interpreted with caution as some features (e.g. vessel diameter) can change significantly due to heat shrinkage (Prior & Gasson, 1993; Braadbaart & Poole, 2008). Microscopic features for hardwood identification are thoroughly described and numbered by a Committee of the International Association of Wood Anatomists (IAWA Committee, 1989). Furthermore, the on-line search database 'InsideWood' archives photographs and wood anatomical descriptions applying these internationally accepted numbered features (InsideWood, 2011; Wheeler, 2011).

118 The most important challenge for Central African charcoal identification is coping with the extreme
119 diversity of woody species. The species-richness in tropical regions such as Central Africa contrasts
120 significantly with the relatively poor species diversity in temperate regions such as Europe or arid
121 regions such as North Africa, where anthracology has been developed and applied regularly
122 (Figueiral & Mosbrugger, 2000; FAO, 2005; Mutke & Barthlott, 2005; Höhn & Neumann, 2011).
123 The few attempts for Central African pedoanthracology were based on personal expertise that did
124 not make use of formal protocols, well defined characters and large wood anatomical databases
125 (Dechamps et al., 1988; Schwartz et al., 1990; Hart et al., 1996). An identification protocol as used
126 by Höhn & Neumann (2011) for the Sahara and the Sahel region and by Scheel-Ybert et al. (1998)
127 for South America has never been developed for Central Africa to the knowledge of the authors.
128 Therefore, the main objective of this article is the development of a transparent and scientifically
129 sound charcoal identification protocol taking into account a large number of Central African woody
130 species. To do so, the authors compiled an umbrella database (Woody Species Database, WSD)
131 composed of (1) the InsideWood database, (2) the digitized reference collection database of the
132 xylarium of the RMCA (Royal Museum for Central Africa, Tervuren, Belgium) and (3) indicator
133 species lists (Lebrun & Gilbert, 1954; Leal, 2004). In order to optimize the protocol for the study
134 area, (4) species from inventory lists were added to the database. The protocol starts with a directed
135 anatomical search in the WSD and ends with a comparative microscopic study of thin sections from
136 the reference collection. A second objective of this article is the application, validation and
137 evaluation of the protocol. To do so, charcoal fragments have been collected in a
138 pedoanthracological excavation and analysed using the protocol.

139 **2 Study area**

140 Little is known on the evolution of species distribution patterns during the Pleistocene and
141 Holocene in Africa. Senterre (2005) describes the phenomenon of choro-ecological transgressions.
142 Particularly, certain species had a tendency to spread in several vegetation types and several

geographical regions. On the other hand, due to e.g. forest regression phases, species disappear in certain regions (Sosef, 1996; Senterre, 2005). However, these tendencies are not yet fully mapped. Therefore, the protocol presented here does not take into account only those species currently occurring in the Mayumbe, but all species native to Central Africa.

The Central African forest complex can be divided into the Lower Guinean and Congolian forest regions, demarcated respectively as ‘LG’ and ‘C’ in **Figure 1** (White, 1983; Leal, 2004; Senterre, 2005). The Lower Guinean is separated from the Congolian forest by the marshes of the Congo and Ubangi rivers. The Congolian forest is separated from East Africa by the Albertine highland rift and Great Lakes (r&l). The Central African forest complex is surrounded by a transition zone of savanna types to the north (TN) and to the south (TS). The Lower Guinean forest is currently separated from the West African forest complex (WA) by savanna types in the ‘Dahomey Gap’ (dg) in Togo and Benin (Leal, 2004). Maley (1996) and Salzmann & Hoelzmann (2005) assume that this gap might have been overgrown by forest during the Holocene Maximum. As such, those West-African endemics are excluded and only species native to LG, C, TN and/or TS are taken into account for final identification.

The Mayumbe forest (‘M’ in **Figure 1**) is part of the Lower Guinean forest complex. It is an assumed sub-mountainous glacial forest refuge located on the hills alongside the Atlantic coast, ranging from south Gabon down to the Luki reserve in the Bas-Congo, Democratic Republic of Congo (Sosef, 1996; Maley, 1996). The Luki reserve (indicated in **Figure 1**) has been selected as research area because it shelters an important forest relic located on the southernmost Mayumbe forest edge. Pedaanthracological sampling was conducted in the well-documented experimental UH48 forest stand (Donis, 1948; Donis & Maudoux, 1951; Couralet, 2010).

Figure 1 (TIFF file, one column wide = 8.9 cm)

167 **3 Material and Methods**

168 **3.1 Pedoanthracology**

169 **3.1.1 Sampling**

170 In stand UH48, a relatively flat and dry area was chosen, which was probably not susceptible to
171 human disturbance, erosion or deposition of colluvium, as recommended by Carcaillet & Thinon
172 (1996). Next, prospection was conducted with an Edelmann auger, down to one meter. One
173 pedoanthracological excavation (surface of 100 cm x 150 cm) was conducted on a spot where
174 prospection yielded charcoal remains on a depth of at least 40 cm and where the soil was relatively
175 dry and penetrable. Macro-charcoal fragments (largest width > 2 mm) were carefully collected by
176 hand per interval of 10 cm. Specific anthracomass was calculated as described by Carcaillet &
177 Thinon (1996). One kg of mixed disturbed soil was taken per two intervals for soil moisture content
178 and organic matter content measurements (Ball, 1964). Also, thin sections were prepared from
179 undisturbed soil samples embedded in polyester using standard procedures (Murphy, 1986) and
180 micromorphological features were described applying polarisation microscopy, using the concepts
181 and terminology of Stoops (2003). Finally, three charcoal fragments from different profile intervals
182 were sent to the Poznań Radiocarbon Laboratory (Poland) for AMS ¹⁴C measurement.

183 **3.1.2 Detection of charcoal types and species-richness within the profile interval**

184 For profile intervals with <50 charcoal fragments, all fragments were analysed using Reflected
185 Light Microscopy (RLM) (e.g. Scheel-Ybert, 2000; Boutain et al., 2010). Based on microscopic
186 features (IAWA Committee, 1989), most charcoal fragments were grouped in primary charcoal
187 types, of which each type represents normally one species and sometimes several species. Some
188 unidentifiable fragments originated from bark, juvenile wood or fruits. These might be originating
189 from the same species represented by the primary types. Therefore, these fragments are grouped in
190 secondary charcoal types which are not taken into account for further interpretation.

191 However, analysing all fragments is very time-consuming when charcoal fragments are numerous,
192 e.g. >500 per layer. In our opinion, to retrieve the most important palaeobotanical data such as the
193 total species-richness and species composition, there is no need to analyse all fragments as species-
194 richness in a small pedoanthracological interval ($< 0.3 \text{ m}^3$) is limited. The total number of charcoal
195 types ($= c$) is considered to reach saturation after a certain number of analysed charcoal fragments
196 ($= X$). Practically, the estimated total amount of charcoal types (\hat{C}) in the intervals was calculated
197 with the CatchAll software (Bunge, 2011) for each record of X and c . Once \hat{C} approximates c ,
198 saturation has been reached. From every layer, an arbitrary initial amount of 50 charcoal fragments
199 was studied and more charcoal fragments were added until saturation.

200 **3.1.3 Anatomical description of charcoal types**

201 For each charcoal type, a large fragment containing all diagnostic features was mounted on a stub
202 for Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM). While studying SEM micrographs, charcoal types are
203 described with the same numbered anatomical features as used on the on-line InsideWood database
204 (IAWA Committee, 1989; Wheeler, 2011; InsideWood, 2011). The final result of the charcoal type
205 description consists of two strings of numbered features. A first string represents primary features
206 which are easily visible. A second string represents secondary features which are variable or
207 unclear. Some anatomical features change during charcoalification, as illustrated by Bustin & Guo
208 (1999) and Braadbaart & Poole (2008). Specifically, shrinkage has been taken into account while
209 describing charcoal type anatomy (e.g. Prior & Gasson, 1993). According to Braadbaart & Poole
210 (2008), tangential diameter shrinkage of vessels can amount to 50%. Moreover, also possible
211 shrinkage of intervessel pits has been taken into account. Finally, some hardwood features are hard
212 to see in charcoal. As such, following numbered IAWA features (IAWA Committee, 1989) are
213 never used as primary features: growth rings (features 1-2), arrangement of intervessel pits (20-23),
214 vestured pits (29), vessel-ray pitting (30-35), druses (144-148), other crystal types (149-158), silica
215 (159-163).

3.2 Development of the Woody Species Database (WSD)

3.2.1 A composed ‘umbrella’ database

Two databases and four species lists have been combined into a comprehensive excel file called ‘Woody Species Database’, further ‘WSD’. This WSD contains a list of species names followed by a wide range of metadata concerning the presence of thin sections in the RMCA, anatomical features, distribution area, ecology and synonymy. Within this umbrella database, a protocol has been developed using the excel column filter function and additional formulas.

First of all, the reference collection database of the xylarium of the RMCA has been used. This is one of the largest collections of wood specimens in the World and possibly the largest collection of Central African wood specimens (Lynch & Gasson, 2010). Large effort was put into digitizing all metadata of the species names and specimens, which resulted in (1) an on-line search database (Tervuren Xylarium Wood Database, 2011) and (2) an excel spreadsheet of species names with several columns of metadata. For every species name, this database provides metadata on the provenance of its specimens and the presence of thin sections in the RMCA collection.

A second database which has been used to create the WSD is the InsideWood search database, described by Wheeler (2011). On the 11th of July 2011, all 5910 modern wood descriptions have been downloaded from the InsideWood database in excel format. This database mentions, per species, the presence or absence of microscopic hardwood features (1-163) described by the IAWA Committee (1989, pp.1-320). Furthermore, features 164-188 provide information on geographical species distribution (IAWA Committee, 1989, pp. 320-321).

Inventory species lists of the Mayumbe and, more specifically, the Luki reserve have been incorporated as well (Donis, 1948; Donis & Maudoux, 1951; Maudoux, 1954; Monteiro, 1962; Pendje, 1992; Couralet, 2010; Maloti Masongo, unpublished results). Inventories provide detailed information on current species composition of the research area. Finally, indicator species lists are incorporated. A first list contains indicator species for all Central African vegetation types described

241 by Lebrun & Gilbert (1954). These vegetation types range from dense evergreen rainforest to
242 sclerophyllous dry forest and edaphic and secondary forest types (see also Mayaux et al., 2000). A
243 second list contains Caesalpinioideae which are indicators for old-growth rainforest in the Lower
244 Guinean and the Congolian rainforest according to Leal (2004).

245 **3.2.2 Synonymy, distribution area and species ecology**

246 Each row in the WSD represents a unique species name, listed in the first column. Metadata of all
247 combined databases are listed in subsequent columns. Next, large effort was put into the problem of
248 synonymy. Within a group of synonyms, each species name has a certain name status: only one
249 synonym is regarded as ‘accepted’ and the rest as ‘unaccepted’. When no consensus has been
250 reached yet, name status is marked ‘uncertain’. Name status has been derived from the African
251 Plants Database of The Conservatory and Botanical Gardens of the City of Geneva (African Plants
252 Database, 2011).

253 Furthermore, the provenance area of reference collection specimens does not always fall within the
254 native distribution area of the species, as species from all over the world have been introduced in
255 Central Africa since the onset of Portuguese explorations in the 15th century and the foundation of
256 coastal trade posts. Therefore, the distribution pattern of all species recorded as ‘Central African’ in
257 the WSD has been verified by the information available on the African Plants Database (2011), the
258 ‘Flore du Congo Belge et du Ruanda-Urundi’ (INEAC, 1948-1963), the ‘Flora of West Tropical
259 Africa’ (Hutchinson & Dalziel, 1954-1972), the ‘Flora of Tropical Africa’ (Oliver, 1830-1916), and
260 ‘The Useful Plants of West Tropical Africa’ (Burkill, 1985). Five separate columns have been
261 added mentioning natural occurrence of the species in regions M, LG, C, TN, TS and/or WA,
262 presented in **Figure 1**. Finally, several columns have been added describing ecology, temperament
263 and morphology for the Central African species.

3.2.3 Adding thin sections and descriptions to the WSD

New anatomical descriptions have been added to the WSD. These descriptions will also be added to the InsideWood database once they have been optimised. Specifically, those Central African species were selected from which the genus is not present on the InsideWood database and from which wood specimens are available at the RMCA. Additionally, thin sections have been prepared from those indicator and inventory species previously lacking thin sections at the RMCA.

3.3 The Identification Protocol

A flow-chart of the identification protocol is presented in **Figure 2**. A first block presents the composition of the WSD. This database contains 163 columns representing all anatomical hardwood features, which are recorded as being ‘present’, ‘absent’ or ‘variable’ (InsideWood, 2011; Wheeler, 2011). The second block in Figure 2 presents the anatomical query and a subsequent series of extension phases. A third block presents a series of reduction phases. The WSD and the protocol as such are not publicly available on the internet. However, the RMCA collection is on-line as the search platform Tervuren Xylarium Wood Database (2011) which provides direct links to micrographs of thin sections and to descriptions on the on-line InsideWood database. Those who are interested can contact the authors for access to the RMCA collection.

Figure 2 (TIFF file, 2 columns wide = 18.4 cm)

3.3.1 Anatomical query and extension phases

The availability of a vast amount of reference thin sections in the RMCA collection offers the opportunity to consider much more species than only those present on the InsideWood search database. Based on morphological resemblances, including wood-anatomical resemblances of species, the science of plant taxonomy groups certain species into genera. Therefore, the first phase of the protocol (IP1 in **Figure 2**) is designed to search genera, not species, on the InsideWood

288 database, which is embedded in the WSD. Specifically, the excel filter function in the WSD is
289 applied to the primary anatomical charcoal features. This query considers species from all over the
290 world because some genera occur in several continents. The resulting species names are marked
291 manually in a separate column (= results list) in the WSD. During a second identification phase, the
292 resulting species name list is extended in three subsequent steps, for which the sequence is very
293 important. In a first step, all synonyms of the species names found after the query, including the
294 accepted names, are added to the results list applying an excel formula (IP2.a in **Figure 2**). For
295 certain species, synonyms belong to several genera. Next, excel adds all species belonging to the
296 genera found after IP2.a (IP2.b). Finally, all synonyms of these species names are added to the
297 results list (IP2.c). The resulting species name list is now at its maximum but covers many
298 synonyms from species from all over the world. Moreover, some species lack reference material.

299 **3.3.2 Reduction phases and comparative microscopy**

300 During a third identification phase (IP3 in **Figure 2**) excel rejects all ‘unaccepted’ names (retaining
301 only the ‘accepted’ or ‘uncertain’ name per species). Furthermore, all species which do not occur in
302 Central Africa and all species without reference material or anatomical descriptions are rejected as
303 well. Finally, thin sections of the species retained after IP3 are taken from the alphabetically
304 ordered reference collection, stored in cupboards in the Laboratory for Wood Biology in the
305 RMCA. Using Transmitted Light Microscopy (TLM) for the thin sections and SEM and RLM for
306 the charcoal, wood anatomy is compared to the charcoal type anatomy. During this phase (IP4),
307 species are rejected based on the secondary and tertiary charcoal anatomy features. Furthermore,
308 this in-depth comparative microscopic phase offers the possibility to take into account anatomical
309 features which are not described by the IAWA Committee (1989). These features are listed and
310 described in **Table 1**. The final result of the charcoal identification protocol is a small group of
311 species, which are all given a probability ranking. Specifically, a 10-point grading system, subject
312 to the user’s opinion, is used. Half of the points of the ranking system consider primary and

secondary anatomical features as well as features described in **Table 1**: if a species resembles the charcoal anatomy perfectly, 5 points should be attributed. The other 5 points of the ranking system consider the distribution area (**Figure 1**): occurrence in ‘M’ = 5 points; ‘LG’=4 points; ‘C’ =3 points; ‘TS’=2 points; ‘TN’=1 point. The charcoal type gets a 9-character label consisting of the three first letters of respectively family, genus and species name of the best ranked species.

Table 1 (XLS file, 1 column wide = 8.9 cm)

4 Results

4.1 Woody Species Database: quantities

Quantities of the WSD are presented in **Figure 3**. In total, the list covers 5521 genus names and 36844 species names. 19090 (= 51.8%) of these are unaccepted names, as synonyms of 12832 (= 34.8%) accepted names. The 4922 uncertain names are treated as accepted names. As there is only one accepted or uncertain name per species, quantities of accepted and uncertain names are equivalent to quantities of species. For the accepted names, metadata of all synonyms has been taken into account.

The database contains 4162 African species, from which the identification protocol presented in this article considers the 2909 Central African species. Inventory and indicator species lists cover 677 species. Specifically, 320 of these are indicator species mentioned by Lebrun & Gilbert (1954), 210 species are indicator Caesalpinioideae mentioned by Leal (2004) and 294 species were listed during inventories in the Mayumbe.

Furthermore, for 2086 (= 71.7%) of all Central African species, at least one transversal thin section has been produced and stored in the xylarium of the RMCA and for 649 (= 22.3%) of all Central African species, a wood anatomical description is available on InsideWood.

Figure 3 (TIFF file, 2 columns wide = 18.4 cm)

4.2 Sampling results

In the UH48 block within the Luki reserve, one pedoanthracological profile has been excavated on a spot where prospection (Edelmann auger) yielded charcoal fragments down to 100 cm. Pedological and anthracological results are presented in **Figure 4**. Roots become less abundant from top to bottom of the profile. Stones are absent. Few horizons are distinguishable. This is confirmed by the study of micromorphological features (cf. Stoops et al., 2010), including a darker micromass in the 0-40 cm interval above a transitional zone (40-60 cm), and indications for the presence of lithological discontinuities around 20 and 40 cm depth. Throughout the profile, the soil shows various features related to bioturbation, in varying abundance.

Figure 4 also presents the total number of charcoal fragments and absolute and specific anthracomass (cf. Carcaillet & Thinon, 1996). Only the four intervals between 10-50 cm contain more than 100 fragments. The two intervals between 30-50 cm contain more than 700 fragments. Small pottery fragments were found in the 30-40 cm interval, which is the second most charcoal-rich: 23.15 g charcoal in 0.15 m³ (= 121 ppm). Radiocarbon dating yielded radiocarbon ages of 2055 ± 30 ¹⁴C yr BP for the 30-40 cm interval, 2205 ± 35 ¹⁴C yr BP for the 80-90 cm interval and 2140 ± 35 ¹⁴C yr BP for the 120-130 cm interval. As these dates are very close, the charcoal fragments could be considered to be the result of the same fire event.

Figure 4 (TIFF file, 2 columns wide = 18.4 cm)

4.3 Charcoal types and identification results

A total amount of 374 charcoal fragments are grouped into 19 charcoal types. **Table 2** presents the number of fragments per type and the number of species (names) retained after each phase of the protocol. The number of species names in the results list is always at its maximum at the end of the extension phase (IP2.c in **Figure 2** and **Table 2**), but is reduced drastically during subsequent extension phases (IP3.a-IP3.c).

363 Three unidentifiable types consist of bark, fruit or juvenile wood, which might belong to one of the
364 identifiable types. These 3 types are therefore classified as secondary charcoal types. The 2 other
365 unidentifiable types consist of monocotyl wood and mature hardwood and are clearly different from
366 the 14 identifiable types. As a result, the overall interval is composed of 16 primary charcoal types
367 which belong to at least 16 different species. The charcoal types are randomly spread in all profile
368 intervals, confirming the presumption that all charcoal fragments in all intervals have been formed
369 during the same fire event.

370 One charcoal type, represented by a large number of fragments, is clearly derived from oil palm nut
371 shells (*Elaeis guineensis* Jacq.). All other 13 primary identifiable charcoal types are clearly wood-
372 derived and identified applying the protocol. For each charcoal type, the group of species retained
373 after application of the protocol is presented in **Table 3**, which specifies whether identification was
374 very successful or not. Less successful identification can be due to a low amount of available
375 charcoal (ULM HOL GRA and APO TAB IBO) or due to unclear charcoal anatomy (DIC DIC
376 MAD). Species names are accepted according to the African Plants Database (2011). Probability
377 ranking is given in a separate column. **Table 3** also provides information on distribution (cf. **Figure**
378 **1**), species ecology, temperament and morphology for every species (Oliver, 1830-1916; INEAC,
379 1948-1963; Hutchinson & Dalziel, 1954-1972; Burkill, 1985; African Plants Database, 2011).
380 Finally, **Table 3** also presents the taxonomic level down to which Elenga et al. (2000) and Lebamba
381 et al. (2009) identified pollen from modern soil samples. Data of Elenga et al. (2000) is derived
382 from study sites in the Mayumbe and those of Lebamba et al. (2009) from sites all over the Lower
383 Guinea. Also, **Table 3** presents the relative abundance of the pollen type in the pollen record of
384 Elenga et al. (2000).

385

386 **Table 2 (XLS file, 2 columns wide = 18.4 cm)**

387

388 **Table 3 (XLS file, 2 columns wide = 18.4 cm). This table should probably be splitted into**
389 **“Table 3” and “Table 3 (continued)”, in order to fit on the pages. Please, repeat column**
390 **headings if splitted.**

391 **4.4 Estimation of species-richness**

392 **Figure 5** is an example of a charcoal type saturation curve. It presents the evolution of the number
393 of studied charcoal types ($= c$) and the estimated total amount of charcoal types ($= \hat{C}$) in the 30-40
394 cm profile interval. \hat{C} approached c very closely when 40 charcoal fragments were analysed.
395 However, as saturation was not yet fully reached, 50 additional fragments from this 30-40 cm
396 interval were analysed. Only 2 new types were found, resulting in a total number of 11 charcoal
397 types in the interval. Furthermore, the estimated total amount of charcoal fragments did not change
398 significantly over the last 25 fragments. Specifically, after 100 charcoal fragments, CatchAll
399 predicted the presence of slightly more than 1 charcoal type left to find in the interval: an estimated
400 amount of 12.4 types versus an observed amount of 11 types. Theoretically, there is a chance that
401 another type can be present in the 30-40 cm interval. Indeed, 6 out of the 16 primary types in the
402 overall profile were not recorded in the 30-40 cm interval. 2 of these types are very rare in the
403 profile. These rare types are represented by few (<6) and very small fragments, which impedes
404 proper visualisation and identification.

405 If the 366 charcoal fragments belonging to the 16 primary charcoal types in the overall profile are
406 considered, the CatchAll software estimates a total species-richness of 16.7 species in the overall
407 profile. Based on these CatchAll estimates, the chance that a new charcoal type can be found by
408 analysing more charcoal fragments is considered small enough to stop adding fragments, both for
409 the 30-40 cm interval as for the overall profile. The same conclusion could have been drawn after
410 analysis of the first 50 charcoal fragments in the 30-40 cm interval.

411

412 **Figure 5 (TIFF file, 1 column wide = 8.9 cm)**

4.5 Refining identification results: probability ranking

4.5.1 IRV IRV SMI

Charcoal type IRV IRV SMI has clear parenchyma bands of more than 3 cells wide, wood rays with mostly procumbent ray cells (sporadically a row of square top cells), rays of 2 or 3 cells wide and medium sized intervessel pits (**Plate I**). Species retained after application of the protocol are presented in **Table 3**. *Bauhinia rufescens* Lam., *Bauhinia petersiana* Bolle and *Caesalpinia welwitschiana* (Oliv.) Brenan are ranked lowest because their rays are regularly unicellular with rather large and irregular ray cell width. Furthermore, both *Bauhinia* spp. occur only in the margins of the Central African forest complex (region TS in **Figure 1**). Next, *Schefflerodendron gilbertianum* J. Leonard & Latour, *Schefflerodendron adenopetalum* (Taub.) Harms and *Quassia undulata* (Guill. & Perr.) D. Dietr. are ranked low because their intervessel pits and their vessels seem to be too small and because they do not exhibit radial vessel groupings (up to 3) regularly. *Guarea cedrata* (A. Chev.) Pellegr. resembles the charcoal type anatomy very well, but its fibre lumina seem to be too wide, the parenchyma bands too narrow and there are too many upright marginal ray cells. Finally, there is no anatomical feature which is sufficiently diagnostic to distinguish *Irvingia smithii* Hook. f. from *Irvingia robur* Mildbr. Both are ranked highest and resemble the charcoal type anatomy almost perfectly. As an illustration of the agreement between the charcoal type anatomy and the wood anatomy, **Plate I** presents SEM images of charcoal type IRV IRV SMI, compared to TLM images of a wood specimen of *I. smithii*. *I. smithii* is mentioned by Lebrun & Gilbert (1954) as an indicator species for riverine rainforest and gallery forest. It is a relatively high and light-demanding tree. On the contrary, *I. robur* is described by the African Plants Database (2011) as a rainforest tree on dry land. Both species occur in the Mayumbe and more specifically in the Luki reserve according to several inventories (**Table 3**).

Plate I (TIFF file, 2 columns wide = 18.4 cm)

439 Charcoal type DIC DIC MAD is very unclear, as illustrated by the SEM images in **PLATE II**.
440 Growth rings are not discernible on the charcoal fragments. The few vessels which are measurable
441 are $40 \pm 5 \mu\text{m}$ wide (Tg diameter on Tv section in **PLATE II.1** and **II.2**), but the number of vessels
442 mm^{-2} is unknown as most of the vessels are very small and difficult to distinguish from parenchyma
443 cells on the Tv section. Vessels seem to be rare and mostly solitary; sometimes they occur as
444 radially aligned couples. Perforation plates seem to be exclusively simple (Tg and R). Intervessel
445 pits and vessel-ray pits are not discernible. Parenchyma is very unclear but seems to be scanty
446 paratracheal or vasicentric. Possibly it is diffuse or banded (up to 3 rows). It is certainly not lozenge
447 aliform. Rays are mostly 3 or 4 cells wide, not very high (up to 1 cm) and not storied. Body ray
448 cells are procumbent or square and up to 2 rows of upright marginal ray cells are discernible. Ray
449 cells are wider than fibre lumina. Fibres are very thick-walled. Canals are not discernible.

450 After application of the identification protocol, 8 species have been retained and presented in **Table**
451 **3**. *Leptactina arnoldiana* De Wild. and *Erythrococca bongensis* Pax are ranked lowest because their
452 rays are not large enough. Furthermore, *E. bongensis* does not occur in the Lower Guinea. Both
453 *Aulacocalyx* spp. and *Schumanniphyton magnificum* (K. Schum.) Harms are ranked low because
454 they exhibit too many (>10) upright marginal ray cells. *Euadenia eminens* Hook.f. resembles well,
455 but its rays are too high. Also, *Cassipourea gummiflua* Tul. resembles well but its parenchyma
456 seems to be too abundant compared to the absence of a clear parenchyma pattern in the charcoal.
457 Finally, *Dichapetalum madagascariense* Poir. is the best match, although its rays seem to be
458 slightly too high. *D. madagascariense* is a lianescent shrub and occurs all over Central Africa in a
459 large range of habitats.

460

461 **PLATE II (TIFF file, 2 columns wide = 18.4 cm)**

462 **5 Discussion**

463 **5.1 Protocol Validation: identification results vs. forest history**

464 **5.1.1 Mutual consistency of identification results**

465 For most charcoal types, the species retained and ranked during the last identification phase belong
466 to several vegetation types (**Tables 3 and 4**). The best ranked species for charcoal types RUB COR
467 PAN, CAE TET BIF, MYR COE BOT, CAE GIL MAY, MEL GUA CED, ANN XYL AUR, HUA
468 HUA GAB and APO TAB IBO occur only in rainforest environments. All these species are small
469 (0-20m) or large (>20m) shade-bearing or light-tolerant trees (**Table 3**). For charcoal type ULM
470 HOL GRA, 5 species were retained, which all occur in a rainforest environment (**Table 3**).
471 Moreover, nearly all species retained for charcoal type CAE GIL MAY and the best ranked species
472 of CAE TET BIF belong to the family of Caesalpinoideae and are typical old-growth rainforest
473 species according to Leal (2004), including the best ranked species, *Gilbertiodendron mayumbense*
474 (Pellegr.) J. Léonard. Also, *I. robur* is a rainforest species and one of the best ranked species for
475 type IRV IRV SMI. The best ranked species for IRV KLA GAB, MYR SYZ GUI and DIC DIC
476 MAD are characterised by a large ecological amplitude, which also comprises rainforest. As a
477 conclusion, identification results suggest a rainforest environment in the southern Mayumbe around
478 2055-2205 ¹⁴C yr BP. The results seem to be consistent, confirming the validity of the identification
479 protocol.

480 **5.1.2 The presence of oil palm as a bottleneck?**

481 Only the presence of *E. guineensis* seems contradicting the other identifications as the oil palm is an
482 important pioneer species which is thought to play a major role in recolonisation of savanna (Maley
483 & Giresse, 1998, Maley & Chepstow-Lusty, 2001). *E. guineensis* has been detected in several
484 palynological records from the Lower Guinea (including the Mayumbe), indicating arid and cool
485 palaeoclimatic phases characterised by forest regression. These records date back to the Eocene and

486 the Miocene, indicating the indigenous nature of the species in the area (e.g. Maley & Brenac, 1998;
487 Maley & Giresse, 1998; Maley & Chepstow-Lusty, 2001). However, only nut shell fragments have
488 been found in the interval. Furthermore, the charcoal fragments in the profile interval were
489 associated with pottery sherds, indicating human influence. Also, Neumann et al. (2011) mention a
490 long tradition in the use of oil palm nuts by humans. This indicates that the fire which produced the
491 charcoal fragments could have been a result of human activity and was either a wild-burning fire or
492 a bonfire.

493 **5.1.3 The Mayumbe during the Holocene Cool Period**

494 By comparing ages of different Early Iron Age sites from Cameroon and Congo, Schwartz et al.
495 (1990) found that iron smelting and thus human occupation spread relatively fast, down to the
496 southern Mayumbe at the end of the Holocene cool period, between 2200 and 2100 ¹⁴C yr BP. This
497 may have been due to a greater extension of savanna. More specifically, archaeological,
498 palynological and phytogeographical results suggest the existence of a complex and shifting forest-
499 savanna mosaic pattern in the southern Mayumbe during the Holocene Cool period between 2500
500 and 2000 ¹⁴C yr BP (Schwartz et al., 1990; Maley & Brenac, 1998; Vincens et al., 1998; Leal, 2004;
501 Ngomanda et al., 2009). This mosaic pattern was characterised by a complex mixture of savanna,
502 pioneer forest, secondary forest, primary rainforest and a broad range of intermediate phases within
503 the forest succession cycle. As such, it is possible that the humans entering the primary rainforest
504 brought along pots and oil palm nuts from nearby regenerating forest. Hence, the consistency of the
505 identification results with forest history seems to confirm the validity of the identification protocol.

506 **5.2 Protocol Evaluation**

507 The ultimate goal of search databases such as InsideWood (2011) and an umbrella database with an
508 identification protocol as presented here, is to standardize identification of charcoal fragments
509 between different analysts (e.g. Mitchener et al., 1997). Previous charcoal identification attempts

510 for Central Africa were based upon the experience of individuals and did not address the
511 complexity of species-richness, synonymy, or the limitation of the reference collection capacity
512 (Dechamps et al., 1988; Schwartz et al., 1990; Hart et al., 1996). To the knowledge of the authors,
513 this article presents the first attempt to quantify the possibilities and limitations of charcoal
514 identification in Central Africa.

515 **5.2.1 Species-richness of the Woody Species Database**

516 Central Africa as presented by regions LG, C, TN and TS (**Figure 1**) covers 5 countries completely
517 (DRC, Congo, Cameroon, Gabon, Equatorial Guinea) and 3 countries partly (Nigeria, Central
518 African Republic, Angola). According to **Figure 3**, the WSD contains 2909 species from these
519 countries. Data of the Food and Agricultural Organisation of the United Nations can serve as a good
520 comparison. FAO (2005) has been monitoring the world's forests at 5 to 10 year intervals since
521 1946. Furthermore, FAO (2005) uses a broad definition of 'tree', including bamboo, palm and other
522 woody species. Specifically, countries from West and Central Africa reported a maximum of 2243
523 native woody species per country. Assuming that there is a very large overlap in woody species
524 composition between neighbouring countries, the total woody species diversity in Central Africa
525 will probably not exceed multiples of this number. As such, the WSD presented here covers already
526 a large percentage of the total Central African woody species-richness. Furthermore, the highest
527 tree species diversity is recorded for South America, where Brazil reports more than 7880 native
528 tree species (FAO, 2005). Indeed, Mutke & Barthlott (2005) confirm that the African continent is
529 less diverse than South America and South-East Asia, although numbers go up to 4000 vascular
530 plant species per 10000 km² in the Lower Guinea.

531 **5.2.2 Power of the identification protocol**

532 By searching on genus level in the InsideWood database, the protocol takes into account 2399 (=
533 82.5%) of the Central African species recorded in the WSD (**Figure 6**). However, reference

534 material, being anatomical descriptions and/or thin sections, is needed for further consideration of
535 these species during comparative microscopy. This is the case for 1937 (= 66.6%) of the Central
536 African species. These species represent the combined power of InsideWood and the RMCA
537 reference collection (**Figure 6**). Furthermore, for 266 (= 9.1%) of the Central African species, the
538 genus is not present on the InsideWood database, although thin sections are available at the RMCA
539 (**Figure 6**). Additionally, for 15 inventory and indicator species, thin sections had to be prepared
540 from wood samples available in the RMCA. For these 281 species, anatomical descriptions have
541 been added to the WSD. Finally, the total power of the protocol accounts for 76.2% of the 2909
542 Central African species in the WSD (**Figure 6**). This is substantial compared to charcoal
543 identification protocols for other research areas.

544

545 **Figure 6 (TIFF file, 2 columns wide = 18.4 cm)**

546

547 As a comparison, a computer-aided key to charcoal identification for a southern Brazilian coastal
548 research area takes into account more than 900 species (Scheel-Ybert et al., 1998; Scheel-Ybert,
549 2000). Another example is the identification protocol for the upper northern Andes developed by Di
550 Pasquale et al. (2008), which takes into account only 32 species described for the first time by the
551 authors. The species composition in the upper Andes is well-defined and limited, in contrast to the
552 complexity inherent in species composition in the Central African rainforest. Finally,
553 peditheology has been developed and since long been applied in Europe (Carcaillet & Thion,
554 1996; Figueiral & Mosbrugger, 2000; Théry-Parisot et al., 2010). FAO (2005) reports a maximum
555 of only 280 native tree species per country in Europe, indicating the convenience of European
556 anthracology relative to Central African anthracology.

5.2.3 Flexibility

Another important advantage is the flexibility of the WSD. First of all, the quantities presented in this article are growing constantly, as wood descriptions are regularly added to the InsideWood database (Wheeler, 2011) and thin sections are regularly prepared and added to the RMCA reference collection. Secondly, an important advantage is the applicability of the protocol within a large geographical context. If a small amount of information is added to the excel spreadsheet in the form of inventory or indicator species lists, the protocol can be optimised for specific research areas all over Central Africa. As an illustration of the importance of inventory and indicator lists, the best ranked species for charcoal type HUA HUA GAB is a Luki inventory species which has been described by the authors for the first time. Moreover, a lot of the retained species (**Table 3**) occur in the indicator list of Lebrun & Gilbert (1954) and nearly all retained species for charcoal type CAE GIL MAY occur in the indicator list of Leal (2004).

5.2.4 Uncertainty

The WSD is not complete in terms of species. Moreover, there are significant gaps in the metadata of the species names. These gaps are sources of uncertainty in the identification protocol. As presented in **Figure 3**, for 2161 (= 12.2%) accepted and uncertain species names recorded in the WSD no provenance continent has been registered. Therefore, these species are excluded. Furthermore, name status is still registered as 'uncertain' for 182 (= 6.2%) of the Central African species names. Next, a third source of uncertainty is the lack of thin sections or anatomical descriptions (**Figure 6**).

Next to these quantifiable sources of uncertainty, a more complex problem is linked to the 'readability' of charcoal anatomy. After the last identification phase (comparative microscopy), a group of species is selected for which anatomy matches the charcoal fragment. Sometimes, it is very difficult to distinguish the best matching species, as illustrated for charcoal types ULM HOL GRA, APO TAB IBO and DIC DIC MAD in **Table 3** and **PLATE II**. Furthermore, one mature

582 hardwood type was not identifiable at all (**Table 2**) and a secondary charcoal type originated from
583 very young (juvenile) wood, which may exhibit different characteristics than mature wood.
584 However, 10 wood-derived charcoal types have a very distinct and legible anatomy and clearly
585 originated from mature wood, as illustrated for IRV IRV SMI on **Plate I**.
586 A third source of uncertainty is inherent in categorizing and coding naturally variable features.
587 Categories are not always compatible with the wide range of varieties nature may produce.
588 Moreover, individuals may code the same characters differently. These problems are partly solved
589 by the manual comparative microscopy in the end where wrongly included taxa are eliminated.
590 However, it is well possible that matching taxa do not enter the protocol because they are coded in a
591 way that they do not appear during the search, even though they have a matching anatomy. A final
592 source of uncertainty is due to imperfections in metadata of RMCA specimens and in descriptions
593 on InsideWood (e.g. Wheeler, 2011).

594 **5.2.5 Compatibility of anthracology and palynology**

595 For most species presented in **Table 3**, the pollen type is only identifiable down to family level or is
596 not defined at all by Elenga et al. (2000) and Lebamba et al. (2009). Only few species are
597 identifiable down to genus level and very few down to species level. Also, charcoal types cannot
598 always be attributed to one single species. However, charcoal identification down to genus level is
599 mostly feasible as the best ranked species mostly belong to the same genus. Therefore, charcoal
600 identification is often taxonomically more precise than pollen identification.
601 An advantage of palynology is the fact that pollen abundance is a good indication for the actual
602 abundance of that taxon in the surrounding vegetation. However, a lot of the species presented in
603 **Table 3** belong to the families of Annonaceae and Caesalpinioideae. Those are insect-pollinated
604 plants which are mostly underrepresented or not represented at all in pollen spectra (Elenga et al.,
605 2000). In contrast, all woody species are detectable by anthracology, although some light and
606 porous woods might burn mainly to ashes. On the other hand, the pollen type *Syzygium* is

607 prominently present in the pollen diagram of Elenga et al. (2000), although *Syzygium* spp. were not
608 represented massively in accompanying floristic inventories. One of the reasons is the fact that
609 *Syzygium* spp. produce a massive amount of pollen compared to other (e.g. entomophilous) species.
610 The species composition of charcoal collections from several pits all over a research area may
611 specify the relative abundance of taxa detected in pollen spectra. As such, anthracology and
612 palynology are highly compatible.

613 **6 Conclusion**

614 The WSD enables a directed search taking into account metadata on (1) anatomical features, (2)
615 availability of thin sections within the reference collection of the RMCA, (3) species distribution
616 and (4) synonymy. Numbers reported by FAO (2005) indicate that the 2909 Central African woody
617 species covered by this database are a substantial percentage of the total woody species richness of
618 Central Africa. The Central African charcoal identification protocol presented here starts with an
619 anatomical query within the WSD, proceeds with automatic extension and reduction phases of the
620 resulting species list and ends with a comparative microscopic study of wood reference thin sections
621 and charcoal anatomy.

622 2218 (= 76.2%) of the 2909 Central African species are considered by the identification protocol.

623 This is substantial compared to existing identification protocols for South America and Europe.

624 Additionally, the protocol has a large geographical applicability, as it can be optimised for every
625 research area within Central Africa if inventory and indicator species lists are available. Moreover,
626 as the reference collection and InsideWood databases are growing on a regular basis, the power of
627 the protocol is still increasing. Finally, anthracology could confirm the presence of taxa which are
628 underrepresented in pollen spectra and specify the abundance of overrepresented taxa. As such, a
629 combination of both disciplines can produce stronger palaeobotanical reconstructions.

630 The protocol has been optimised for the Mayumbe (DR Congo) and applied on charcoal from a
631 radiocarbon dated (2055 - 2205 ¹⁴C yr BP) soil profile in the Luki reserve. 13 out of 16 charcoal

types originated clearly from mature hardwood and could be identified. All best ranked species occur in rainforest and the best ranked species of one type, *Gilbertiodendron mayombense*, is an indicator species for old-growth rainforest. This is a consistent result and a first evidence for the validity of the protocol. Furthermore, the presence of nut shells of the pioneer species *Elaeis guineensis* in the same profile can be explained by the presence of humans that used those nuts. The presence of humans is confirmed by the finding of pottery sherds. Probably, humans entered the rainforest carrying pots and oil palm nuts from regenerating forest located nearby. This also seems to confirm the existence of a complex and shifting forest-savanna mosaic pattern in the southern Mayumbe, as proposed by several authors.

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Captions

Figure 1: map of the Central and West African forest complexes; localisation of the Mayumbe forest and the Luki reserve.

Figure 2: flow-chart of the identification protocol; **A:** constitution of the anatomical search database; **B:** anatomical query and extension phases; **C:** reduction phases.

Figure 3: quantities of the Woody Species Database.

Figure 4: profile in UH48 (Luki reserve); visual representation of pit structure, profile description and anthracomass per soil layer.

Figure 5: charcoal type saturation curve; comparison between the amount of observed charcoal types (c) and estimated total amount of charcoal types (\hat{C}) in the interval, in function of the number of observed charcoal fragments (X) for the interval between 30 and 40 cm depth: $c=f(X)$ and $\hat{C}=f(X)$. For every $X < 22$, the total amount of analysed fragments was too small for reliable species-richness estimation with the CatchAll software. For every $22 < X < 72$, the non-parametric model Chao1 has been selected for calculation of \hat{C} (Bunge, 2011). Finally, for every $X > 72$, the best model proposed by the CatchAll software was used.

Figure 6: power of the identification protocol.

Table 1: descriptions of anatomical hardwood features used during comparative microscopy and not described by the IAWA committee (1989).

854 **Table 2:** number of studied fragments per profile interval per charcoal type; number of species
855 (names) per identification phase per charcoal type.

856

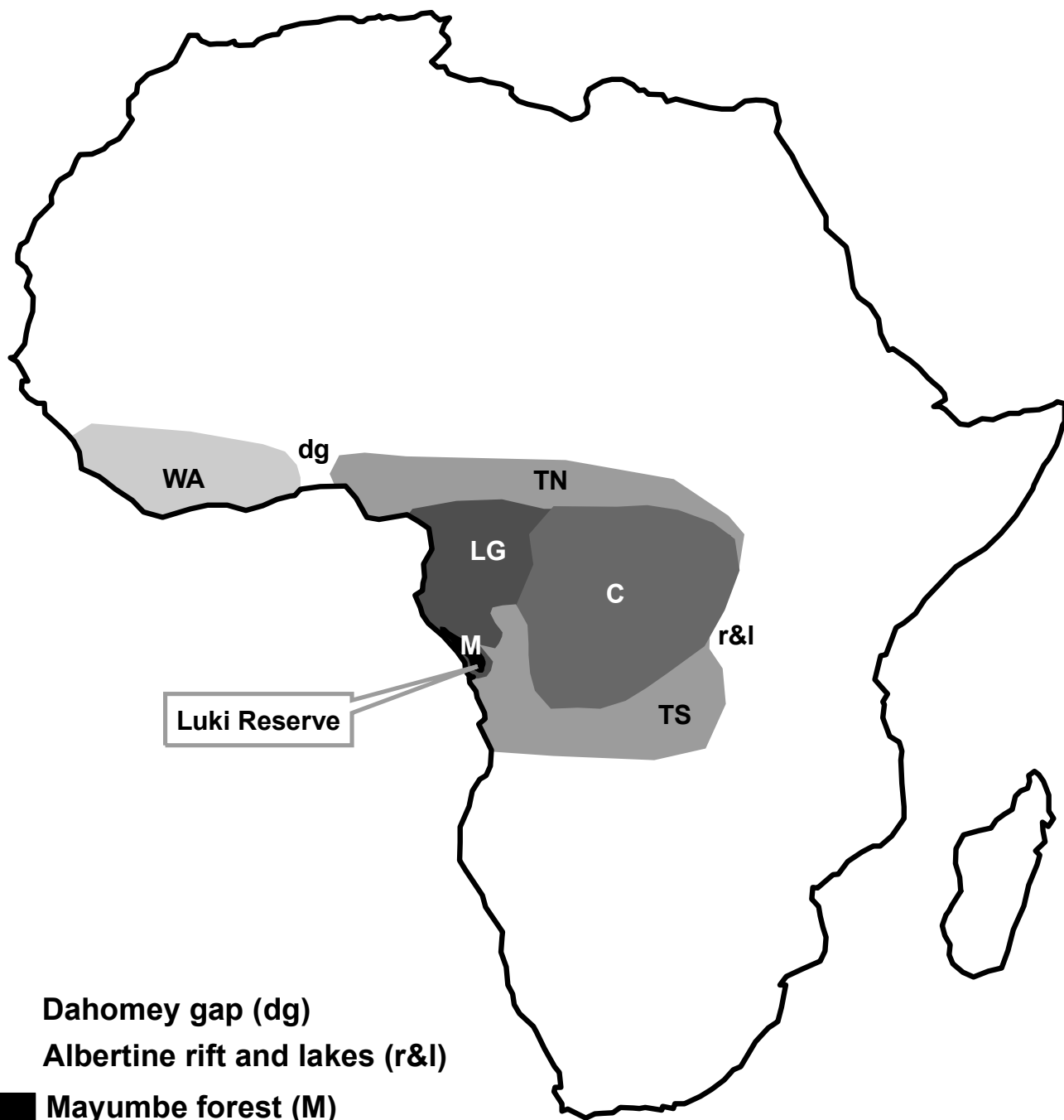
857 **Table 3:** identification results of very successful and less successful charcoal types. Species
858 retained after application of the protocol, per charcoal type found in the UH48 profile. Best ranked
859 species are marked in grey for each charcoal type.

860

861 **Plate I.** LEFT: Scanning Electron Micrographs (SEM) of charcoal type IRV IRV SMI; **1:**
862 Transversal direction (scale bar = 100µm); **2:** Radial direction (scale bar = 100µm); **3:** Tangential
863 direction (scale bar = 100µm); **4:** Tangential detail of intervessel pits (scale bar = 10µm); RIGHT:
864 Transmitted Light Micrographs (TLM) of *Irvingia smithii* Hook. f. (Tw 13339); **5:** Transversal
865 direction (scale bar = 200µm); **6:** Radial direction (scale bar = 200µm); **7:** Tangential direction
866 (scale bar = 200µm); **8:** Tangential detail of intervessel pits (scale bar = 50µm).

867

868 **Plate II.** LEFT: Scanning Electron Micrographs (SEM) of charcoal type DIC DIC MAD; **1:**
869 Transversal direction (scale bar = 200µm); **2:** Transversal detail of vessel and parenchyma (scale
870 bar = 20µm); **3:** Radial direction (scale bar = 200µm); **4:** Tangential direction (scale bar = 200µm);
871 RIGHT: Transmitted Light Micrographs (TLM) of *Dichapetalum madagascariense* Poir. (Tw
872 32792); **5:** Transversal direction (scale bar = 250µm); **6:** Transversal detail of vessel and
873 parenchyma (scale bar = 50µm) **7:** Radial direction (scale bar = 250µm); **8:** Tangential direction
874 (scale bar = 250µm).



Dahomey gap (dg)

Albertine rift and lakes (r&l)

 Mayumbe forest (M)

 Lower Guinean forest complex (LG)

 Congolian forest complex (C)

 transition zone to the north (TN) and to the south (TS)

 West African forest complex (WA)

A. Woody Species Database (WSD) =

1. Inside Wood database (InsideWood, 2011; Wheeler, 2011)
2. RMCA reference collection database (Tervuren Xylarium Wood Database, 2011)
3. Inventory and Indicator species lists

B. Identification Protocol: anatomical query and extension phases

IP1	anatomical query:	the user	manually	adds	species names	found applying only primary anatomical criteria (IAWA, 1989)
IP2	extension phases:	excel	automatically	adds	all synonyms	of the species names found after IP1
	.a	excel	automatically	adds	species names	belonging to the genera found after IP2.a
	.b	excel	automatically	adds	all synonyms	of the species names found after IP2.b
	.c					

C. Identification Protocol: reduction phases

IP3	reduction phases:	excel	automatically	rejects	unaccepted names	
	.a	excel	automatically	rejects	species	which do not occur in Central Africa
	.b	excel	automatically	rejects	species	with no information on wood anatomy (thin sections or descriptions)
	.c					
IP4	comparative microscopy:	the user	manually	rejects	species	from which thin sections do not match charcoal type anatomy
	.a	the user	manually	ranks	species	based on anatomical features and current distribution area
	.b					

QUANTITIES OF THE WSD (chapter 4.1)

GENERA : 5521 genera

SPECIES NAMES: 36844

←	UNACCEPTED SPECIES NAMES:	51.8%	19090
←	ACCEPTED SPECIES NAMES:	34.8%	12832
←	UNCERTAIN SPECIES NAMES:	13.4%	4922
→	ACCEPTED AND UNCERTAIN SPECIES NAMES :	48.2%	17754 species

CONTINENT UNKNOWN : 12.2% 2161 species

AFRICA : 23.4% 4162 species

CENTRAL AFRICA: 69.9% 2909 species

UNCERTAIN SPECIES NAMES: 181 species

INVENTORIES & INDICATOR SPECIES: 677 species

GILBERT & LEBRUN (1954) : 320 species

LEAL (2004) : 210 species

LUKI INVENTORIES : 294 species

THIN SECTIONS OR INSIDEWOOD DESCRIPTIONS AVAILABLE : 75.7% 2203 species

THIN SECTIONS AVAILABLE IN RMCA: 71.7% 2086 species

INSIDEWOOD DESCRIPTIONS AVAILABLE : 22.3% 649 species

Q1

P_a

Q2

P_b

P_c

Q3


$$P_a = (Q2/Q1) \times 100$$

$$P_b = (Q3/Q1) \times 100$$

$$P_c = (Q3/Q2) \times 100$$

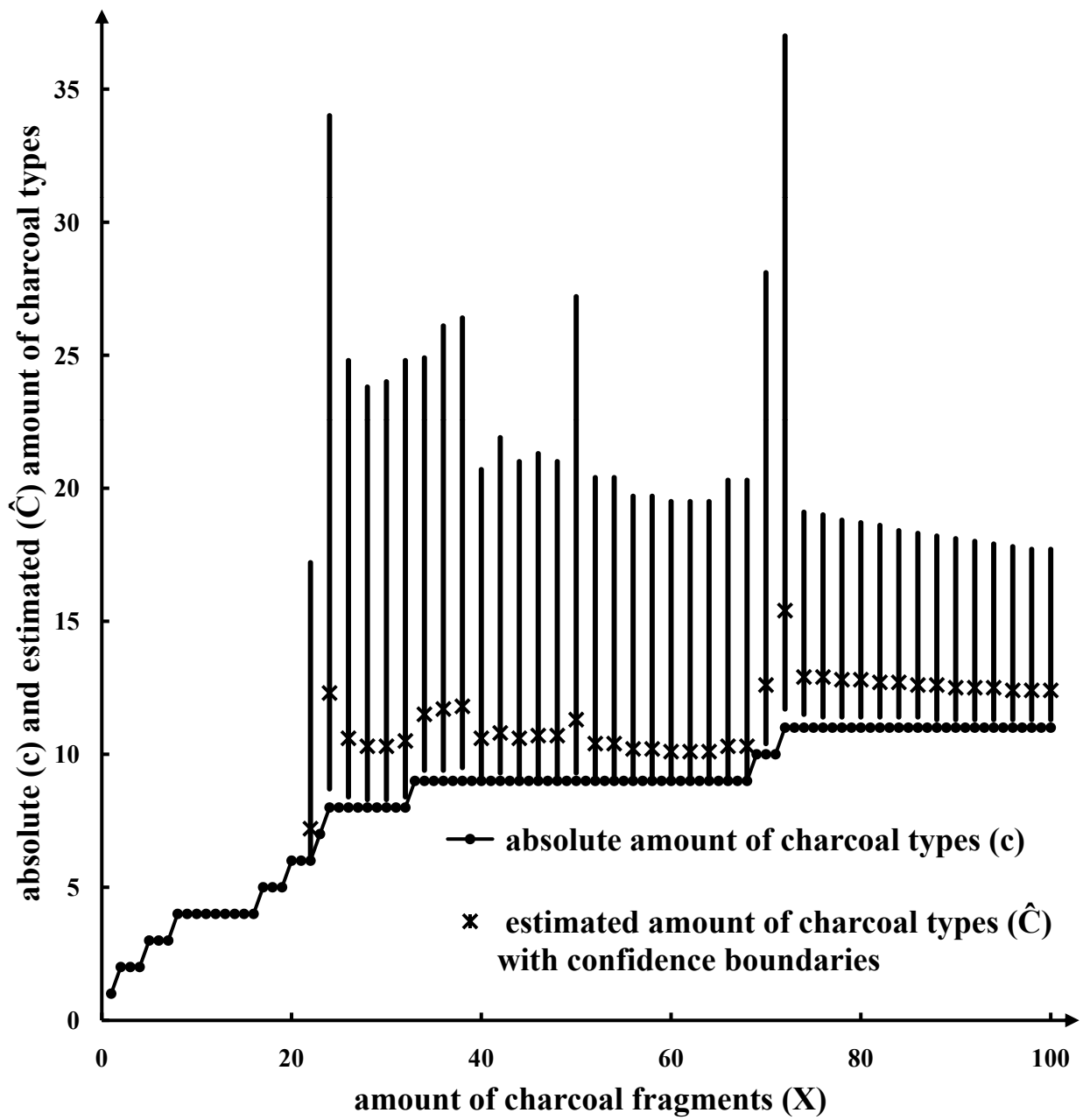
Q = Quantities

P = Percentages

Drawing (a)	Depth [cm]	Horizon	Roots [%V]	Stones [%V]	Colour	OM [%m]	Moisture [%m]	Texture	Bioturbation	Depth [cm]	Soil volume [m ³]	Soil mass [kg]	# charcoal fragments	Anthracomass [mg]	Specific anthracomass [ppm] = [mg ⁻¹ kg ⁻¹]	¹⁴ C yr BP
	(b)	(b)	(b)	(b)	(c)	(d)	(e)	(f)	(g)					(h)	(i)	
	0-20	A	40%	0%	7.5YR 4/4	4.7%	46%	sp-(dp)	pl, (ch)	0-10	0.15	191	3	578	3.0	-
	10-20	A	20%	0%	7.5YR 5/4	4.8%	45%	cp	si, (pl), (ch)	10-20	0.15	191	>200	1394	7.3	-
	20-30									20-30	0.15	191	>100	3606	18.9	-
	30-40									30-40	0.15	191	>700	23150	121.3	2055 ± 30 Poz-33055
	40-50	AB	10%	0%	7.5YR 5/6	5.3%	45%	sp	ch, (pl)	40-50	0.15	207	>700	38180	184.3	-
	50-60									50-60	0.15	207	39	1974	9.5	-
	60-70					5.1%	46%	sp	(sl), (pf)	60-70	0.15	207	23	792	3.8	-
	70-80									70-80	0.15	207	15	657	3.2	-
	80-90									80-90	0.15	207	11	936	4.5	2205 ± 35 Poz-39110
	90-100					5.0%	46%	sp	si, ch	90-100	0.15	207	6	276	1.3	-
	100-110	B	5%	0%	7.5YR 5/8	4.8%	47%	sp	si, ch	100-110	0.15	207	8	186	0.9	-
	110-120					4.9%	48%	sp	gr, si, (ch)	110-120	0.15	207	6	103	0.5	-
	120-130									120-130	0.15	207	11	561	2.7	2140 ± 35 Poz-39109
	130-140									130-140	0.15	207	2	55	0.3	-
	140-160									140-160	0.0025	3.5	0	0	0.0	-
	160-180									160-180	0.0025	3.5	0	0	0.0	-

Legend:
 organic
 pot sherds:
 roots:

- (a) drawing of the profile; legend is given under the figure
(b) percent (Volume%) stones and roots in total interval volume
(c) soil color based on Munsell Soil Color Chart
(d) total soil Organic Matter (OM), based on Loss On Ignition (LOI) method (mass %)
(e) total soil moisture content (mass %)
(f) microscopic features related to groundmass texture (c/f related distribution pattern) - sp = single spaced porphyric, dp = double spaced porphyric, cp = close porphyric
(g) microscopic features recording bioturbation - ch = channels, gr = granular structure, pl = pellet structure, si = sediment infillings
(h) $m_{char, 075}$ = oven-dry anthracomass [mg] (cf. Carcaillet & Thinson, 1996): charcoal dried at 75°C for 48h
(i) $\rho_{char, 075}$ = oven-dry specific anthracomass [ppm = mg⁻¹ kg⁻¹] (cf. Carcaillet & Thinson, 1996): charcoal dried at 75°C for 48h



POWER OF THE IDENTIFICATION PROTOCOL (chapter 5.2.2)				
CENTRAL AFRICA:		2909	species	
POWER (1) :	GENUS IN INSIDEWOOD :	82.5%	2399	species
	THIN SECTIONS OR IW DESCRIPTIONS AVAILABLE :	66.6%	1937	species
	NO THIN SECTIONS IN RMCA AND NO INSIDEWOOD DESCRIPTIONS :		462	species
POWER (2) :	WOOD SPECIMEN AVAILABLE IN RMCA :		97	species
	NEW THIN SECTIONS FROM INVENTORY & INDICATOR SPECIES :	0.4%	12	species
POWER (3) :	NO GENUS IN INSIDEWOOD :	17.5%	510	species
	THIN SECTIONS AVAILABLE :	9.1%	266	species
	NO THIN SECTIONS IN RMCA:		244	species
POWER (2) :	WOOD SPECIMEN AVAILABLE IN RMCA :		56	species
	NEW THIN SECTIONS FROM INVENTORY & INDICATOR SPECIES :	0.1%	3	species
TOTAL POWER OF THE PROTOCOL:		76.2%	2218	species

POWER (1) : combined power of InsideWood & xylarium of the RMCA (Tervuren, Belgium)
 POWER (2) : added power by OWN anatomical descriptions on OWN thin sections from Inventory and Indicator species
 POWER (3) : added power by OWN anatomical descriptions on EXISTING thin sections

Non-IAWA anatomical feature	Description
axial parenchyma difficult to recognise	axial parenchyma could be diffuse, scanty paratracheal or vasicentric, but it is difficult to recognise due to charcoalification
Paratracheal axial parenchyma incomplete aliform	aliform parenchyma forming wings on two opposite sides of a vessel without touching each other; fibres touch the vessel on 2 radially aligned sides
ray cell lumina width << fibre lumina width	on Tg section
ray cell lumina width = fibre lumina width	on Tg section
ray cell lumina width >> fibre lumina width	on Tg section
rays 100-80% uniseriate	a portion of 0-20% of the ray is 2-seriate
rays 80-50% uniseriate	a portion of 20-50% of the ray is 2-seriate
rays 50-0% uniseriate	a portion of 50-100% of the ray is 2-seriate
presence of uniseriate rays	-
presence of 2-seriate rays	-
presence of 3-seriate rays	-
presence of 4-seriate rays	-
presence of 5-seriate rays	-
presence of 6-seriate rays	-

[illegible]

[illegible]

(a) distribution: cf. Figure 1, data are derived from African Plants Database (2011), INEAC (1948–1963), Hutchinson & Dalziel (1954–1975), Forster (1810–1816), Burkhell (1985)
 (b) comp. morph. morph.: data are derived from African Plants Database (2011), INEAC (1948–1963), Hutchinson & Dalziel (1954–1975), Forster (1810–1816), Burkhell (1985)
 (c) presence (p) or absence (a) of a wood anatomical trait in the xylem of the species: data are derived from the Xylem of the World Database (2011), Xylem Wood Database (2011)
 (d) presence (p) or absence (a) of this trait (TV, Tg and R) of this species in the xylem of the Royal Museum for Central Africa in Tervuren, Belgium (Tervuren Xylem Wood Database, 2011)
 (e) presence (p) or absence (a) of a wood anatomical characteristic of this species on the on-line Inside Wood Database (July 2011)
 (f) Inventory lists: Lukitsch (1964)
 (g) indicator whether this species is (p) or not (a) on the indicator species for the African forest (Lukitsch 1964)
 (h) Indicator forest type: indicates whether this species is (p) or not (a) on one of the indicator species for a certain African forest type described by Lebrun & Gilbert (1954)
 (i) relative abundance of pollen type in modern soil samples (Elegni et al. 2009): “++” = not detected; “+” = detected but very scarce; “-” = detected in moderate quantities; “+++” = abundant
 (j) relative abundance of pollen type in modern soil samples (Elegni et al. 2009): “++” = not detected; “+” = detected but very scarce; “-” = detected in moderate quantities; “+++” = abundant
 (k) taxonomic level: taxonomic level of pollen identification (Lehmann et al. 2009): “f” = family level; “g” = genus level; “s” = species level; “n” = no defined pollen type available

